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❖ *Special Edition* ❖

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Medallic History of the War of 1812: Consequences to the American Indian Nations

by Benjamin Weiss

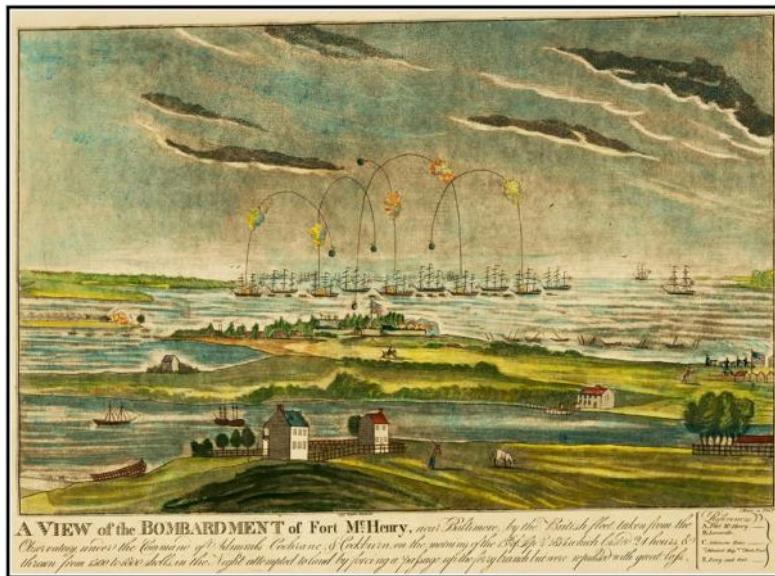


❖ Introduction to the War of 1812 Special Edition ❖

This issue is our “War of 1812 Special”. The length of our only article has crowded out a rich menu of correspondence, announcement of the Club Medal for 2013, the President’s Message and ye Editor’s Notes. We have all of these items PLUS an especially rich and varied backlog to which to look forward. We hope to publish another issue soon after this one and yet another before year end.

Turning to the War of 1812, our webmaster Ben Weiss has crafted an outstanding analysis of the subject. He covers all of the many venues of the War – the battles on our Northern frontier, on the East Coast, on the Great Lakes, the epic confrontations at sea and the final chapter featuring Andrew Jackson at New Orleans. These are the stuff of history books and will be familiar to all readers familiar with the past and with the traditions of our nation.

Most important, Ben’s article is not a mere recitation of history. Rather, he uses an historical framework to bring forward a unique perspective. The War of 1812 did little damage to the main combatants, the United States and Great Britain. It did not alter borders, nor did it bring down governments. Were it not for the sacking of the White House and the composition of our National Anthem during the attack on Fort McHenry, the events would not warrant even a chapter in a survey history.



1814 print of the Battle of Fort McHenry by John Bower

The perspective introduced by the author is that of the Native Americans, led by the great chief Tecumseh, who were induced to participate in the hostilities. The Indians united behind Great Britain, hoping to staunch the Westward flow of the new American nation. They committed to this cause, shed copious amounts of blood in its support and then were totally ignored in the subsequent establishment of peace. The background of the American flag on the cover of this issue is a deliberate irony: yes, two heroes of the War of 1812 went on to become President – Andrew Jackson and William Henry Harrison – but they would use that Office not to undo wrongs done to Native Americans but to further oppress them.

Ben Weiss does a superb job of weaving medals into his story line. Whether it is Indian peace medals, the great Drake Map Medal or United States Mint medals, these icons appear as the great milestones of history which they indeed are. One need not be a collector of historical medals to appreciate the special relevance of our hobby in the great flow of events.

Read on and enjoy!

~ John W. Adams

Medallic History of the War of 1812: Consequences to the American Indian Nations

by Benjamin Weiss

Brothers, we all belong to one family; we are all children of the Great Spirit; we walk in the same path; slake our thirst at the same spring; and now affairs of the greatest concern lead us to smoke the pipe around the same council fire!"

Tecumseh, in a speech to the Osages in 1811, urging the Indian nations to unite and to forewarn them of the calamities that were to come (As told by John Dunn Hunter).



Circa 1860 engraving of Tecumseh in battle during the War of 1812

Historical and commemorative medals can often be used to help illustrate the plight of a People. Such is the case with medals issued during the period of the War of 1812. As wars go, this war was fairly short and had relatively few casualties¹, but it had enormous impact on the future of the countries and peoples of the Northern Hemisphere. At the conclusion of this conflict, the geography, destiny and social structure of the newly-formed United States of America and Canada were forever and irrevocably altered.

From the standpoint of medallic history, the War of 1812 spawned a prodigious number of medals commemorating the battles and its army and naval commanders². It will be through the lens of medals issued during this period that we will examine the causes, events, and long-term consequences of what historians have variously called the “Forgotten War” or a stalemate ending in a status quo ante bellum with no winners or losers. As we shall see, particularly for the American Indians, it was far from that.

Early History of the Indigenous People of North America

Although there is still active research in tracing how and when North America became populated, most now believe humans migrated from Eurasia at least 10,000 years ago by way of Beringia, a land bridge which formerly connected Asia and North America across what is now the Bering Strait. A number of Paleoindian cultures developed and settled throughout the Western Hemisphere, several of which became quite sophisticated in their social structure and evidenced remarkable scientific and architectural achievements, particularly those in Central and South America. Although relations were not always peaceful, these diverse Indian cultures flourished for centuries, the Native American nations ultimately comprising dozens of individual tribes, occupying vast territories of North America (Figure 1).

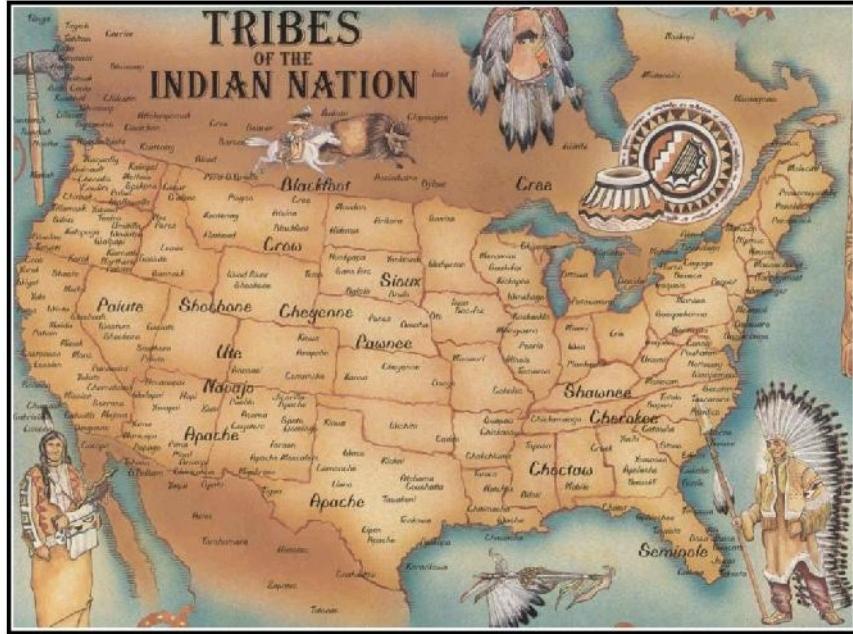


Figure 1
Map showing the Native American tribes of North America

First Encounters of Europeans with Native Americans

The arrival and subsequent colonization of Europeans in the Americas dramatically altered the lives and fortunes of the Native American nations. Beginning with the landing of Christopher Columbus on the islands off the North American coast in 1492, for the American Indians the die was cast. Columbus was followed by the Spanish explorer/ conquistador Juan Ponce de León to current-day Florida in 1513, and later by Sir Francis Drake, the English navigator from the Elizabethan period, who landed on the west coast of America, now California. Even though Drake found Native American tribes already living there (Figure 2), he christened the land Nova Albion (New Britain), a name still shown on a medalllic Map of the World struck about 1820 (Figure 3).

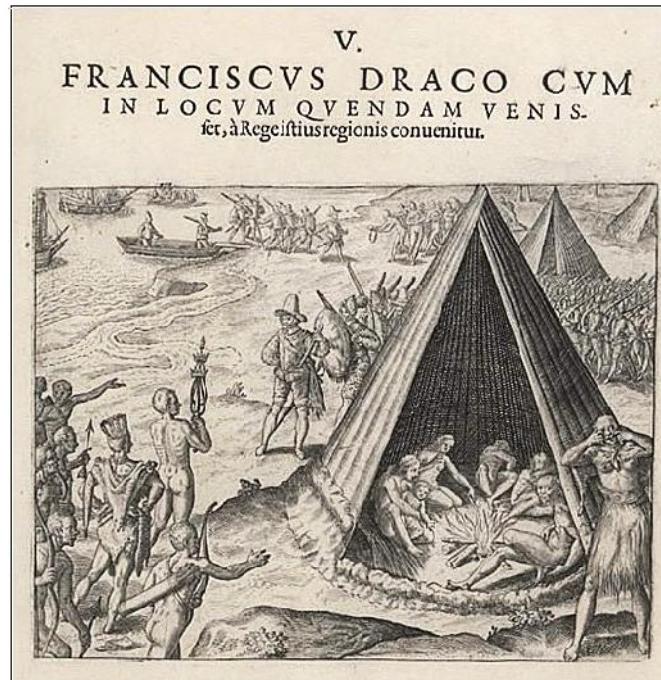


Figure 2
Early engraving showing Sir Francis Drake with the Native Americans on the coast of California

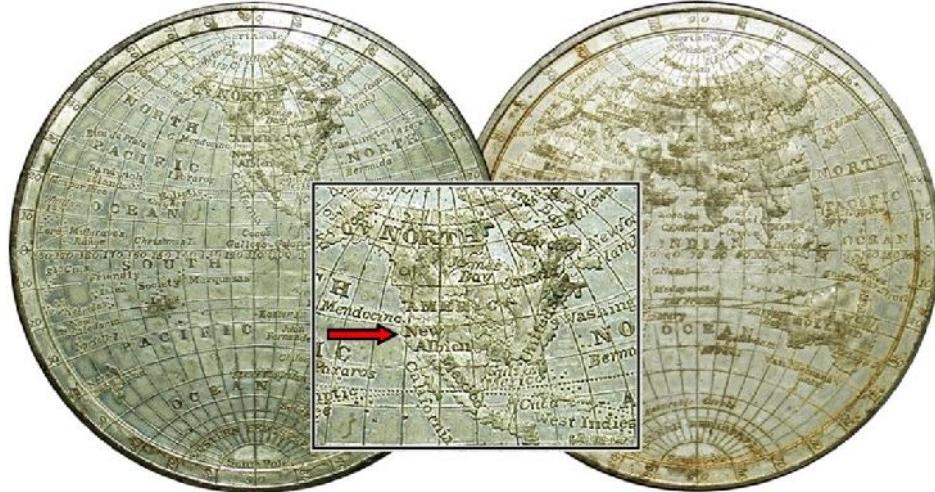


Figure 3
1820 World map medal showing New Albion where Drake landed in California

Evidence from a variety of sources suggests that from their earliest interactions the European settlers considered the Native Americans to be inferior to themselves. When the English established their first permanent settlement in Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607, during the reign of James I of England (Figure 4), they required the Indians to display an Indian Treaty Badge in order for them to visit English settlements (Figure 5). Engraved on the badge was the Indian town to which they belonged. The Europeans, on the other hand, could enter Native American tribal villages at will. This second-class citizenship, or more appropriately put, non-citizenship, continued up to and through the writing of the United States Constitution, which specifically excluded Indians from among those represented. In fact, although many treaties were agreed to in the interim, it wasn't until 1924 that full citizenship was granted to all Indians.



Figure 4
James I of England medal by Dassier



Figure 5
Virginia Indian Treaty Badge

Not unlike the rationale given for the subjugation of other groups on other continents, these European colonists in the Americas often justified their expansion of empire by introducing Christianity to what they viewed as barbaric and pagan peoples. As an example of the religious nature of the bigotry visited upon the Native Americans, in 1631 the Puritan minister Increase Mather of Massachusetts said: "*God ended the controversy by sending smallpox among the Indians*". In the mid seventeenth century, Virginia's English governor Francis Wyatt declared: "*Our first work is the expulsion of the savages to gain the free range of the country for increase of cattle, swine etc. It is infinitely better to have no heathen among us, who at best were as thorns in our sides, than to be at peace and league with them*" (Gardner).

That there was a religious basis for the opposition to the Native Americans is supported further by the words of some of the "Founding Fathers" of the United States of America. In a letter from George Washington to the President of Congress, he stated, in part: "*Towards the latter part of the year 1783 I was honored with a letter from the Countess of Huntington, briefly reciting her benevolent intention of spreading Christianity among the Tribes of Indians inhabiting our Western Territory; and expressing a desire of my advice and assistance to carry this charitable design into execution. I wrote her Ladyship...that it was my belief, there was no other way to effect her pious and benevolent designs, but by first reducing these people to a state of greater civilization, but that I would give every aid in my power...to devote the remainder of my life, to carry her plan into effect*" (Allen).

The perception that Native Americans belonged to an inferior race was reinforced by other statements of George Washington, who, as early as 1783, compared Indians with animals, proclaiming: "*Indians and wolves are both beast of prey, tho' they differ in shape*" (Stennard). Although during his presidency Thomas Jefferson believed that the Indians would share power in the west and should be treated as equals, by 1812, he said that America was obliged to push the backward Indians "*with the beasts of the forests into the Stony Mountains*", one year later adding that America must "*pursue [the Indians] to extermination, or drive them to new seats beyond our reach*" (Stennard).

Besides introducing an alien religion, the new settlers brought with them from Europe not only smallpox and other epidemic diseases but also enslavement and warfare. Attitudes and events such as these account for the fact that the pre-Columbian population of Native Americans in North America, estimated by anthropologists to be as many as 30 million, had declined to about one million by the 1890s (Gardner).

Indian Peace Medals³



Figure 6
Undated George III Indian Peace medal

Medals were given to the Native Americans by several countries, beginning as early as 1693 by France, and continued, on and off, for about two centuries. Great Britain began to issue Indian peace medals as early as 1714 (see Figure 6 for an Indian Chief Medal issued by the English about 1776); France, during the reign of Louis XIV and continuing to the reign of Louis XV; Spain, as early as 1765 (Figure 7); and the newly-formed United States of America, starting with the administration of George Washington (1789-1797) (Figure 8) and continuing to that of Benjamin Harrison (1889-1893). The reasons they were presented to these native peoples were varied: as an act of genuine friendship; to persuade them to join the European countries in alliance against another European country or against the new colonies in America; or as rewards for their trade and military support.



Figure 7
Charles III Spanish Indian Peace medal circa 1778

Some regard the issuance of Indian Peace Medals, often presented with great fanfare, as an important part of the deception perpetrated on the indigenous peoples by the Europeans on both sides of the Atlantic; both used them, often disingenuously, to try to convince the Native Americans to ally themselves for one and against the other, while at the same time, at least in the case of the Americans, usurping their lands and destroying their culture.

In general, medals made of precious metals were valued by the Indians more than those made of base metals, and by-and-large, the larger the medal the more prestigious the awardees felt. The Washington peace medals were made in different sizes, the larger ones given to the Indian chief and smaller ones to those of lesser rank. The early ones were quite large (e.g., one dated 1793 was 134 x 175 mm), were hand engraved in silver, and oval in shape (Figure 8).



Figure 8
1793 George Washington engraved oval Indian Peace medal

During the War of 1812, the Native American tribes were far more supportive of the English than they were of the Americans. This is not surprising as the Americans were perceived and, in many cases, were in fact their enemies. They encroached on their native lands, broke treaties and otherwise humiliated them. The English, on the other hand, offered the opportunity for the Indians to keep their lands and help defeat their American enemies.



Figure 9
George III 1814 dated Indian Peace medal used during the War of 1812

The issuance of medals also played a role in the relative support the American Indians gave to the two belligerents. Although both sides recognized the importance of medals to the Native Americans in gaining their allegiance, the English were often more skillful at using them. For example, Lewis and Clark advised Indian chiefs "*to impress it on the minds of their nations*" that medals and flags were not to be accepted from British representatives, "*without they wished to incur the displeasure of their Great American Father.*" However, British authorities in Canada often took away the medals previously given to the Indians by Lewis and Clark and replaced them with their own. They also issued Peace Medals in 1814 (Figures 9, 10), similar to those given to the Indians by the British during the War for Independence (Figure 6). Although several medals were given to Indian chiefs by the Americans in the earlier times, as far as this author could determine no such medals were specifically issued for the Native Americans during the War of 1812. For all these reasons it was not surprising that the American Indians fought vigorously on the side of the English against the Americans.



Figure 10
Obverse design of 1814 British Indian Peace medal

America's failure to issue a peace medal for the Native Americans during the War of 1812 was not due to a lack of an understanding of its importance, however. Rather, bureaucratic indecision seemed to be responsible. During the administration of James Madison, in May of 1812, just a month before the conflict formally began, John Mason, the head of the Office of Indian Trade, tried to have a medal struck. Mason wrote as follows: *"It has long been the practice to give occasionally to the chiefs and warriors of the different tribes of Indians having relations with the Government, silver medals as marks of distinction, bearing the effigy of the President of the United States for the time being on one side--and on the reverse some attribute of friendship with appropriate legends &c. There have been none yet executed representing the present President... and it is desirable now to do so as soon as possible for the purpose of being furnished with the presents &c for this year"* (from Prucha, p.96). After the war started, there seemed to be more urgency in executing the medals, yet because of disagreements on the composition and finding an appropriate artist, there were many delays in its production. The immediate crisis was averted when it was decided to issue to the chiefs the older Jefferson peace medals (Figure 11), with the intent to exchange them at a later date with the Madison medals. It wasn't until December 17, 1814, that the first medals were available and not until January 6, 1815, were significant numbers ready for distribution. By that time the War of 1812 was over, the final agreement having been reached on December 24, 1814, when diplomats signed the Treaty of Ghent.



Figure 11
Thomas Jefferson Indian Peace medal

Prelude to the War of 1812

The origins of the War of 1812 should be viewed in the context of the major battles fought in Europe between the long-standing and powerful political antagonists, France and Great Britain. These two great European empires had been at war since 1793. Although America at that time was technically neutral, they were trading with France and were supplying them with war materiel. Further, some of the US sailors were also former British citizens or defectors from the British Navy. As Britain needed more sailors for their ships, they began to intercept American vessels on the high seas, seize their cargo and kidnap British naval deserters and other able bodied sailors to man their own warships. One of the more egregious of these acts occurred in 1807 when the British warship HMS Leopard captured the American frigate USS Chesapeake off the coast of Virginia. (As an ignominious postscript to this affair, in 1813, the Chesapeake, then under the command of Captain James Lawrence, was defeated and captured by the British frigate HMS Shannon and was taken into service in the Royal Navy.) These continuous provocations, which had been ongoing for some 20 years, fueled increased dissension in the former British colonies. War fever was escalated further by some young congressional firebrands, like Henry Clay of Kentucky (Figure 12) and John C. Calhoun of South Carolina, both of whom wanted to expand westward into the Indian territories.



Figure 12
1852 Henry Clay United States Mint Medal by Charles Cushing Wright

In spite of these incitements, initially there was little enthusiasm for the war on either side. England was much too preoccupied fighting the French in Europe to be overly eager to engage its former colonies across the sea. In America, most realized it was ill prepared for war, although President James Madison thought, wrongly, that Upper Canada, being weakly defended and populated largely by American immigrants, would side with the United States. Opposition to the war also came from New England, which had a vibrant trade with Britain and which it didn't want to jeopardize.

Nevertheless, in June 1812, Madison laid out to congress the grievances of the U.S. against the British, citing in particular: Britain's restriction of free passage of United States merchant vessels in the Atlantic; the impressing of American sailors into the Royal Navy; and the alliance of Britain with American Indians to deter American westward expansion. With propagandizing cartoons depicting the collaboration of the British with the Indians in the massacre of Americans (Figure 13) also playing a part in lowering Congress' threshold for battle, within days, Congress passed a declaration of war. Madison signed the measure into law, and the fledgling United States, having reached the end of its tether, declared war against the most powerful navy in the world.



Figure 13
Propaganda cartoon depicting the British helping Indians with the massacre of Americans

Over in Europe, by 1812, Napoleon Bonaparte, then at the height of his powers, had conquered much of North Africa and Europe and was about to invade Russia. The great Battle of Waterloo (Figure 14) was yet to be fought when hostilities broke out in the new world. France was only too eager to aid the United States against its implacable foe, the English, but neither of these great European sovereignties had the inclination at that time to engage in a battle across the sea. The impending end of the war between England and France, however, was to greatly influence how the War of 1812 ultimately played out.



Figure 14
Large pair of shells by Pistrucci for the Battle of Waterloo

Theaters for War of 1812

Historians have described the War of 1812 as having distinct theaters, although, as is so often the case, not necessarily agreeing on exactly what those theaters comprise. For our part, we will divide the war into three geographic areas: The Northern Theater (The Great Lakes and its environs); at sea, along the Atlantic Ocean; and the Southern Theater. Medals commemorating the major American victories in each of these theaters were issued by Congress both during the war and afterwards.

I. Northern Theater, including the Great Lakes, Western Territories and Upper and Lower Canada (Fig. 15):

At the beginning, the war fought on the Great Lakes was a disaster for American forces. At Fort Mackinac, situated on a small island on the northern tips of Lakes Huron and Michigan, Lieutenant Porter Hanks was unexpectedly attacked by British and Native American forces. Hanks surrendered in short order.



Figure 15
Map of the Northern Theatre of the War of 1812

In one of its earlier offensive campaigns, the U.S. decided to invade Canada in an area around the eastern Great Lakes, near Detroit. The British were led by Sir George Provost and General Isaac Brock, the U.S. by General William Hull. At this Battle of Detroit the English got major support from the Native Americans, who decided to place their allegiance with the British, in large part because of the great Shawnee⁴ warrior Tecumseh (Figure 16).

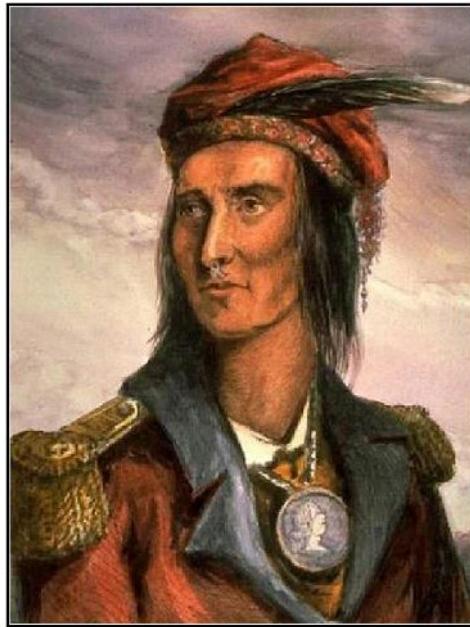


Figure 16
Tecumseh portrait from Benjamin Lossing

Tecumseh's father was murdered when Tecumseh was still a child. This may have had some influence in shaping his overriding goal of preventing the westward expansion of the Americans into Indian tribal lands. He felt he could more readily accomplish this objective by forming a federation of Indian nations and to side with the British against the United States, believing that a British victory might mean an end to such an incursion into their territories. In addition, the Americans had earlier attacked Prophetstown, Indiana. Prophetstown was the site of the 1811 Battle of Tippecanoe (Figure 17) between William Henry Harrison (Figure 18) and Native American warriors led by Tecumseh and his brother Tenskwatawa, an incendiary political and religious leader of the Shawnee, who became commonly known as The Prophet.



Figure 17
19th century depiction of the Battle of Tippecanoe by Alonzo Chappel

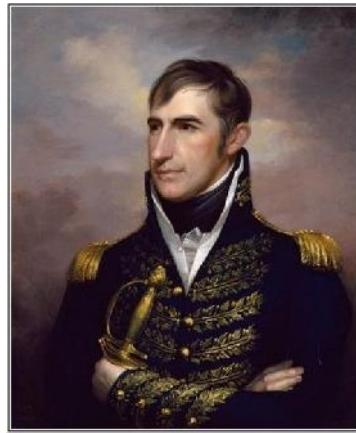


Figure 18
William Henry Harrison by Rembrandt Peale circa 1813

The Battle of Detroit was no contest. Hull surrendered without firing a shot, declaring himself a hero because he prevented what he feared would be a massacre by people he referred to as Indian “savages”.

In the Battle of Queenston Heights in the present day province of Ontario, the Americans again tried to take the offensive in what many call the first major battle of the War of 1812. The American forces were led by Major General Stephen Van Rensselaer, and the British forces, Canadian militia and Mohawks were led by Major General Isaac Brock. The U.S. troops stationed at Lewiston, New York, which was situated on the Niagara River near Niagara Falls, just across from Canada, invaded Canada, crossing the Niagara River. Although Brock was killed, again the Americans lost. In retaliation for the attack, the British burned Lewiston to the ground.

In another attempt to conquer Canada, the Americans led by Major General Henry Dearborn tried to invade Canadian territory. The attack was called off as the American troops refused to cross the border.

II. War at Sea, Along the Atlantic Ocean and East Coast of North America:

With regard to the naval vessels each side had at its disposal, the relative strengths of the two protagonists were markedly skewed in favor of England. The British had 200 frigates and 100 ships of the line while the Americans had eight frigates and no ships of the line. Despite this disadvantage in numbers, the American vessels were remarkably successful, particularly when compared with their failure to make any headway into Canada. A few examples, for which medals were awarded to their commanders, will serve to illustrate their successes at sea.

In one of the first of several encounters between the United States warships and those of Britain in 1812, the United States frigate Constitution had a fierce battle with HMS Guerriere. The Constitution, under the command of Captain Isaac Hull, was triumphant, an action for which Hull was awarded a congressional gold medal (Figure 19).



Figure 19
Captain Isaac Hull Medal

Later in the same year, Captain Stephen Decatur, who had gained prominence years earlier in the naval engagements off Tripoli, fighting the Barbary pirates, engaged the British frigate HMS Macedonian (Figure 20).



Figure 20
“Naval Battle between USS United States and HMS Macedonian” by Thomas Birch

Decatur, while commanding the frigate USS United States about 500 miles south of the Azores, forced the Macedonian to surrender, a victory for which he was awarded a gold medal by Congress (Julian, NA-9). Just a couple months later, in December 1812, Captain William Bainbridge, then in command of the United States frigate Constitution, engaged the British frigate HMS Java off the coast of Brazil. Bainbridge, though wounded, continued his command, and after inflicting heavy losses on his adversary, forced the Java to surrender, burning it at sea. For this heroic and successful encounter, Congress awarded Bainbridge a gold medal (Julian, NA-4; see Figure 21).



Figure 21
Captain William Bainbridge medal

In all, the USS Constitution defeated five British warships during the War of 1812: HMS Guerriere, Java, Pictou, Cyane and Levant. For her early defeat of the Guerriere, the Constitution earned the nickname of "Old Ironsides".

In February, 1813, the USS Hornet, under the leadership of Master Commandant James Lawrence, encountered HMS Peacock off the northern coast of South America. The Hornet's superior gunnery forced the Peacock to surrender within fifteen minutes. Later in 1813, while commanding the USS Chesapeake in an engagement with the British ship Shannon, Lawrence was mortally wounded. His last words, when carried below, were, "Don't

give up the ship!" For his defeat of the Peacock, Congress, in 1814, passed a resolution stating that: "*The President of the United States be requested to present to the nearest male relative of Captain James Lawrence, a gold medal...*" (see Figure 22).



Figure 22
Captain James Lawrence medal

In March, 1815, Captain James Biddle, in command of the sloop of war Hornet, met and captured the British sloop of war Penguin off Tristan d'Acunha in the South Atlantic. This was to be the last warship action in the War of 1812. As with the others, Biddle was awarded a medal by Congress for this action (Figure 23).



Figure 23
Captain James Biddle medal

In all, Congress authorized medals for some 16 naval commanders, the most famous of whom was probably Master Commandant Oliver Hazard Perry (Figure 24), who led American forces in a decisive naval victory at the Battle of Lake Erie and whose brilliant strategic leadership influenced the outcomes of all of the Lake Erie campaigns. These military victories on Lake Erie are thought to be a major turning point in the contest for the West in the War of 1812 (see below).



Figure 24
Commandant Oliver Hazard Perry by Edward L. Mooney

Campaign in the West:

In the campaign west of Lake Erie, William Henry Harrison directed the American forces while Henry Procter (seen also as Proctor) commanded the combined British and Native American forces. The campaign was brutal on both sides, though as Tecumseh's brother, the Prophet, noted it was only called a massacre when the Americans were killed; when the Native warriors were killed, it was called a great triumph.

The Battle at Fort Stephenson took place in August, 1813, at Fort Stephenson near Sandusky, Ohio. It pitted British Brigadier General Henry Procter, who was intent on dividing the western portion of the United States, against Colonel George Croghan, commanding the American forces. The contest was decidedly one-sided with Procter having several pieces of artillery and 1300 troops, including 800 Indians, with another 2000 Indians in reserve. By contrast, Croghan had just one piece of artillery and barely 200 men. Refusing to surrender, Croghan and his forces prevailed, killing more than 150 of the British. England never again seriously threatened the northwestern portion of the United States.

Although Croghan was not recognized for a medal during the war, in a belated recognition of his bravery, Congress did approve a gold medal for Colonel George Croghan's defense of Fort Stephenson in 1835, the last War of 1812 medal to be awarded (Julian, MI-12; Figure 25). As an interesting aside for numismatists, although many naval medals had Latin inscriptions, this is the only army medal issued during this period that has a Latin inscription (PARS MAGNA FUIT), translated as "His Share Was Great".⁵



Figure 25
Colonel George Croghan medal

The Battle of Lake Erie, also fought in 1813, was one of the most memorable for the Americans. Here British Lieutenant Robert Barclay, with a fleet led by his flagship HMS Detroit, tried to secure what was then the major supply line for the British. However, Captain Oliver Hazard Perry (Figure 24) with his Flagship USS Lawrence engaged Barclay and decisively defeated and captured his squadron, prompting the now-famous saying attributed to Perry: “*We have met the enemy and they are ours*”. The British supply line was severed and the British were forced to retreat up the Thames River for Canada. Later that same year Perry was awarded a gold medal (Julian, NA-17) from Congress for “*his decisive and glorious victory gained on Lake Erie...over a British squadron of superior force*” (Loubat).

The Battle of the Thames, which was fought in Moraviantown, Canada, in October, 1813, less than a month after the Battle of Lake Erie, was perhaps the most momentous for the aspirations of the Native Nations. On the one side was British Colonel Henry Procter, allied with Tecumseh and his Indian warriors, and on the other side were William Henry Harrison and his American troops. Procter made many tactical errors, among which was his retreat from the battlefield, for which he later was issued a court martial. This left Tecumseh and his Native warriors essentially on their own. Greatly outmanned and outgunned by Harrison and his force of 3500 infantry and cavalry, Tecumseh and his 500 warriors were routed, and Tecumseh was killed (Figure 26). The withdrawal of the British, combined with the death of Tecumseh, broke the power of Britain's Indian allies and gave the Americans control of the Great Lakes (Sugden).



Figure 26
Death of Tecumseh image showing Tecumseh wearing a British medal

The battle of the Thames at Moraviantown is historically important for several nations. It marked the first important breakthrough for the Americans against the British in the War of 1812, although it did not lead to their ultimate goal--the control and eventual annexation of Canada. It was significant for both the Americans and the British, as Moraviantown marked the end of major military operations west of Lake Ontario; both sides now concentrated their efforts on the battles further east. For Canada, it is considered sufficiently important for them to have celebrated “Tecumseh Day” on the centenary of Moraviantown. For the Indian nations, it also was a watershed event. As the Ottawa leader Naiwish, who fought with Tecumseh at Moraviantown, put it: “*Since our great chief Tecumtha [sic] has been killed we do not listen to one another. We do not rise together.*” A similar sentiment was echoed by the historian Reginald Horsman who wrote, Moraviantown was “*the decisive battle of the war on the Detroit frontier, and the decisive battle for the Indians of the whole region. It meant more to them than the loss of a single battle, for this was also their last great battle in defense of the Old Northwest*”. Indeed, with the death of Tecumseh, from that point on the Native Americans were no longer a force in the war nor would they ever again have a say in who would hold power in North America.

In 1818, Congress awarded Major General William Henry Harrison a gold medal for “*gallantry and good conduct in defeating the combined British and Indian forces under Major-General Proctor, on the Thames, in Upper Canada [in 1813]...capturing the British army, with their baggage, camp equipment and artillery*” (Loubat). That the Indians played an important role for the British in this battle is supported by the letter from General Harrison to the

Secretary of War, General John Armstrong, in which he makes numerous references to the Indian warriors: "...the contest was more severe with the Indians"; and "...General Proctor had at his disposal upwards of three thousand Indian warriors..."; and still later in the report, "The Indians suffered most..." (Loubat, pp. 256-261).

The Niagara Theater of 1813 was one of the most bloody of the war as U.S. forces burned the town of Newark (now Niagara). This action was unusual for the time, for generally civilian homes were not attacked indiscriminately. There were atrocities on both sides; the British retaliated by burning Buffalo and the Americans by burning York (now Toronto), then the provincial capital of Upper Canada. This latter action set the stage for the burning of Washington, D.C. by the British.

Burning of Washington, D.C. and the Battle of Baltimore.

Although the final defeat of Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo, in June, 1815, had not yet taken place, by April 1814 the French Emperor had abdicated his throne, and was banished to the Mediterranean island of Elba, freeing up British troops and ships for their war with the United States. The British, aided by liberated slaves, who were offered freedom by the British, sailed up the Chesapeake toward a relatively undefended Washington, D.C., and in August, 1814, famously burned the Capital, the President's Palace⁶ (later called The White House), and several other public buildings (Figure 27).

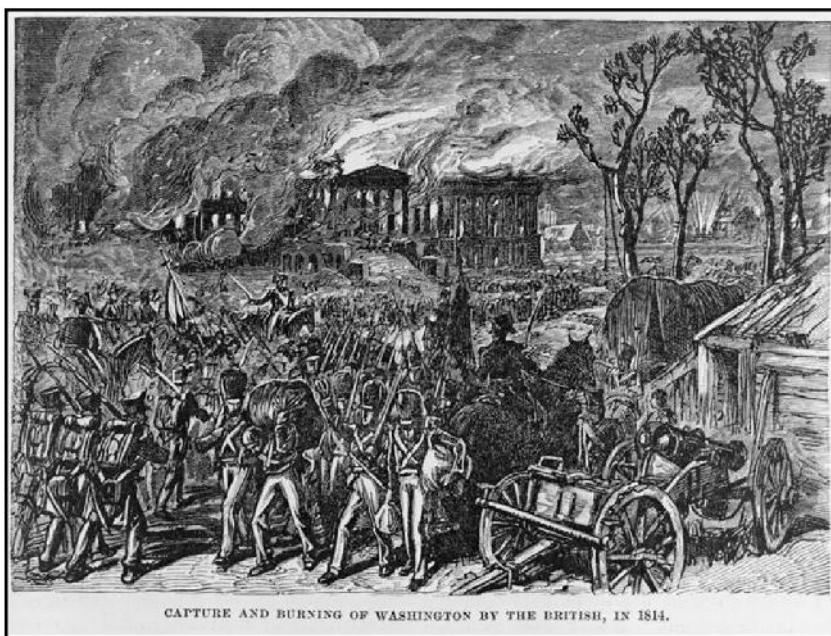


Figure 27
Capture and Burning of Washington by the British in 1814

To capitalize on their demoralizing attack of Washington, the British then went north to Baltimore with both land and sea forces, laying siege to Fort McHenry, the major defense of Baltimore Harbor. However, in what many consider to be one of the turning points of the war, American forces repulsed the British. The bombardment by the British of Fort McHenry and its defense by the Americans inspired Francis Scott Key, who was watching from the shore, to compose the poem "*Defense of Fort McHenry*", which later, somewhat modified, would become the lyrics for the American National Anthem, "The Star Spangled Banner", put to the tune of an old English drinking song "*Anacreon in Heaven*".

That Baltimore did not fall gave the Americans a stronger hand in the ongoing peace negotiations then being held in Ghent, this ancient and important city in the Flemish region of present-day Belgium. There the British had demanded an Indian state for the American Indians. Now, with their hands strengthened, the Americans rejected this proposal. Henceforth, the ultimate fate of the Native Indian Nations would be decided by European Americans.

During the same time period that British forces were engaging Baltimore, the English invaded the town of Plattsburgh at the western boundary of Lake Champlain, again with land and sea personnel. The British army was under Lieutenant General Sir George Prévost and their naval squadron under Captain George Downie. The American

troops were led by Brigadier General Alexander Macomb and their ships commanded by Master Commandant Thomas Macdonough. Macdonough and his men were victorious in the Battle of Lake Champlain, forcing the English to relinquish the strategic lake and withdraw their army. In October of that year, Thomas Macdonough was awarded a gold medal by Congress (Julian NA-15) "for the decisive and splendid victory gained on Lake Champlain...over a British squadron of superior force" (Loubat). Also involved in the Battle of Lake Champlain was Lieutenant Stephen Cassin, who, while commanding the sloop Ticonderoga, contributed decisively to victory over the British, for which he likewise received a Congressional Gold Medal (Julian-NA-8; Figure 28).



Figure 28
Lieutenant Stephen Cassin gold medal

The Battles at Chippewa (also seen as Chippawa) and geographically related sites along the Niagara River were also fought in 1814. As Napoleon was seen to be soon defeated in Europe, the American forces were eager to win a victory in Canada before British reinforcements arrived there. The U.S. troops, led by Major Generals Winfield Scott and Jacob Brown, and aided by a force of Iroquois warriors under Seneca Chief Red Jacket (Figure 29), won successive victories at Chippewa, Niagara and Erie, in Upper Canada⁷ (at Erie the battle was fought without Scott, who was severely wounded at Niagara), inflicting significant casualties on British regulars, Canadian militiamen and Indian warriors fighting on the British side. Indeed, the Battle of Niagara Falls (also called the Battle of Lundy's Lane) was one of the bloodiest battles of the war and one of the deadliest ever fought on Canadian soil. Although successful for the Americans, these were the last major attempts by the U.S. forces to conquer Upper Canada⁷.



Figure 29
Chief Red Jacket wearing a large oval engraved Washington Indian Peace medal

For their triumphs in these battles, both Brown and Scott were awarded Congressional Gold Medals (Julian, MI-11; MI-20).

At about the same time, in August, 1814, there was a land battle at Fort Erie, situated on the Niagara River at the eastern tip of Lake Erie. There Brigadier General Edmund Gaines successfully repulsed the British assault. General Gaines was seriously wounded in this battle, ending his active field career. For this victory Gaines was awarded the thanks of Congress, promotion to major general, and a gold medal (Julian, MI-13; Figure 30).



Figure 30
General Edmund P. Gaines medal

Although the Iroquois warriors played a significant role in these battles on both sides and suffered significant casualties, no mention was made of them either as allies or opponents in the official citation of the medal awarded by Congress to Major General Jacob Brown or to Major General Peter Porter for their victories in the Battles of Chippewa, Niagara and Erie. This was in spite of the fact that Porter, in a correspondence to Brown, stated that "*Captain Fleming, who commanded the Indians, was, as he always is, in the front of the Battle.*" The resolutions of Congress in voting medals to Generals Brown, Scott, Porter, Gaines, Macomb, Ripley, and Miller state, in part: "*That thanks of Congress be, and they are hereby, presented to Major General Brown, and through him to the officers and men of the regular army, and of the militia under his command, for their gallantry and good conduct in the successive battles of Chippewa, Niagara, and Erie, in Upper Canada, in which British veteran troops were beaten and repulsed by equal or inferior numbers:..*". Thus, the commanders, regular army and militia are cited, but not the Indians, who made up a significant proportion of the fighters and casualties both for the Americans and British. For example, Brigadier General Peter Porter commanded a brigade of 753 volunteers from the militia, together with 600 Iroquois. For the British, Major General Phineas Riall had 1,500 regulars and 300 Indians and militia.

III. Southern Theater:

The major battles in the south took place late in the war, and indeed, even after the treaty ending the war had been concluded. In 1814, Andrew Jackson and his forces defeated the Creek Nation at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend, forcing them to cede to the United States Government half of central Alabama and part of southern Georgia. In January, 1815, as negotiations at Ghent were underway, a massive British fleet headed for New Orleans, the gateway to the Louisiana Territory, half of continental United States. To meet them was Andrew Jackson with his regular army, militia and Black recruits. Also aiding Jackson was the French pirate and privateer, Jean Lafitte, who had been granted the promise of clemency for him and his men in exchange for his joining Jackson against the British. The Battle of New Orleans was brief and decisive in favor of the American forces. It wasn't until after the battle that news reached the belligerents, indicating that a peace treaty had already been signed at Ghent. Nevertheless, for this victory at the Battle of New Orleans, Congress awarded Jackson a medal in 1815 (Julian, MI-15).

Conclusion of the War

The War of 1812 was formally concluded with the ratification of the Treaty of Ghent between Great Britain and the United States (Figure 31), an event memorialized by the issuance of a medal commemorating this occasion (Figure 32). Although the treaty was signed in December 24, 1814, because of slow communications at that time, hostilities, such as the Battle of New Orleans, which took place on January 8, 1815, continued past this time.



Figure 31
1814 Signing of the Treaty of Ghent by Amédée Forestier

As far as the British and Americans were concerned, little was changed by the treaty, the document essentially restoring each country's territory to the boundaries that existed before the war. The war's effect on the so-called minority populations was mixed. During the war, thousands of black enslaved Americans went over to the British side, fighting with them against the Americans, but although the Treaty of Ghent stipulated that Britain return to the United States the black slaves who had escaped to British territories during the war, the British, in fact, reimbursed the slave owners and freed the slaves, many of whom settled in what is now Canada. The Indian nations, who were not even represented at the negotiations, did not fare as well; the Americans even inserted as part of the treaty a promise from the British not to arm the Indians nor even trade with them. To quote one source: "*By its end American fear and hatred escalated into a merciless determination to exterminate all Indians and seize their lands and the withdrawal of British protection gave the Americans a free hand. In that sense, the final victory at New Orleans had enduring and massive consequences. It gave the Americans continental predominance while it left the Indians dispossessed, powerless, and vulnerable*" (Taylor, 2011).

One particular series of events serves as an example of the hardships the Native Americans endured following the War of 1812. In 1830, congress, with the support of President Andrew Jackson, passed the Indian Removal Act, which claimed the native lands of the Cherokee and other Indian Nations in parts of Southeastern United States for the European Americans. In 1831, the Choctaw were forced to leave, then the Seminole in 1832 and Creek in 1837. By 1837, more than 46,000 Native Americans from these southeastern states had been wrenched from their homelands, thereby opening 25 million acres of land, previously occupied by Native Americans, for predominantly white settlement. The Cherokee, however, fought this ruling and won their case before the U.S. Supreme Court. Nevertheless, Jackson, who had territorial interests of his own, famously said: "[Chief Justice] John Marshall has made his decision; let him enforce it now if he can". The path was now clear for one of the most deplorable episodes in early U.S. history, for in 1838, about 14,000 Cherokee were evicted from their homelands in the Appalachian Mountains and forced to walk to a newly-formed Indian territory in what is now eastern Oklahoma, a journey of some 900 miles. During this infamous Trail of Tears, as many as 4000 Cherokee died of exposure, disease and starvation. Their plight has been recorded from a Cherokee account from The Oklahoman, 1929, cited by John Ehle: "*Long time we travel on way to new land. People feel bad when they leave Old Nation. Women cry and made sad wails. Children cry and many men cry, and all look sad like when friends die, but they say nothing and just put heads down and keep on go towards West. Many days pass and people die very much.*"



Figure 32
Treaty of Ghent Medal

Subsequent to the displacement of American Indians in the 1830s, there were many other “Trails of Tears”, among which were: the massacre at the unarmed Cheyenne village of Sand Creek, Colorado, in 1864, at which time Colonel John Chivington ordered his troops to, “Kill them all, little and big, because nits make lice”; and at Wounded Knee, South Dakota, in 1890, where there was another forced removal and mass killing, a massacre which effectively ended 300 years of North American Indian wars (Gardner).

Prophetically, Tecumseh had seen it all coming. In 1811, in a speech before a joint council of the Choctaw and Chickasaw nations, he ominously predicted:

“The annihilation of our race is at hand unless we unite in one common cause against the common foe. Think not, brave Choctaws and Chickasaws, that you can remain passive and indifferent to the common danger, and thus escape the common fate. Your people, too, will soon be as falling leaves and scattering clouds before their blighting breath. You, too, will be driven away from your native land and ancient domains as leaves are driven before the wintry storms. Sleep not longer, O Choctaws and Chickasaws, in false security and delusive hopes. Our broad domains are fast escaping from our grasp. Every year our white intruders become more greedy, exacting, oppressive and overbearing. Every year contentions spring up between them and our people and when blood is shed we have to make atonement whether right or wrong, at the cost of the lives of our greatest chiefs, and the yielding up of large tracts of our lands.” (Hunter)

Consequences of the War

Although the War of 1812 does not stand out as memorably as others, some consider it as the Second War of American Independence. It certainly was largely responsible for the election of two of the U.S. presidents: Andrew Jackson, the seventh president of the United States and the hero of the Battle of New Orleans, and William Henry Harrison, the ninth president, who made his mark earlier in the Battle of Tippecanoe and later, in 1813, at the Battle of the Thames, where he defeated the combined British and Indian forces led by their legendary Shawnee Indian Chief, Tecumseh. It is remembered by most Americans as the time when the British burned several of the public buildings in Washington, including the “President’s Palace”; about the U.S.S. Constitution and its nickname “Old Ironsides” ; and as the inspiration for Francis Scott Key, while witnessing the bombardment by the British of the American forces at Fort McHenry during the Battle of Baltimore in 1814, to write the lyrics to what became known as the Star Spangled Banner, the National Anthem of the United States.

The war may also be remembered as being responsible for, on the one hand, the writing of the definitive chapter in the story of Canada’s quest to become a sovereign and independent country, but on the other hand, the virtual end of Tecumseh’s dream of a confederated Native American Nation and the end of the American Indians as a people free to control their own destiny. 

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LEGENDS TO FIGURES

Figure 1: Native American Nations in North America

(Source: thehighlanderspoems.com)

Figure 2: Sir Francis Drake=s Landing in California

Engraving by Theodore De Bry, published 1590

(Source: <http://bancroft.berkeley.edu/Exhibits/nativeamericans/lg13.html>)

Figure 3: WORLD MAP MEDAL

by T. Halliday?: England, c.1820, White Metal, 74 mm

Obv: Western hemisphere showing North and South America with continents and other land masses and bodies of water labeled as they were known in the early 19th century. These include New Albion (anachronistic) in the Western United States, New Saledonia (now New Caledonia), Jugo (much of the southern portion of South America), and the Sandwich Islands (now Hawaii)

Rev: Eastern Hemisphere with continents and other land masses and bodies of water labeled as they were known in the early 19th century. These include, among others, New Holland (Australia), Van Dieman's Land (Tasmania), and Barbary in North Africa (now Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia and Libya)

Ref: Rulau E9; Eimer 1139a; Weiss 657

(Source: [Weiss Collection](#))

Figure 4: James I of England

by Jean Dassier: England, 1731, Bronze, 41 mm

Obv: Bust of James I **IACOBUS. I. D.G. M. BR. FR. ET. HIB. REX.**

Rev: Tomb with two Genii, one of whom adds the Scottish Lion to the arms, alluding to the union of the two kingdoms, the other points to a book, alluding to the King's fame as an author.

Exergue: **NAT. 19. IUN. 1556. CORON. 25. IUL 1603. MORT. 27 MART. 1625.**

Ref: M.I. i, 237/104; Eimer 37/104; Eisler I, 262/26; Thompson 31/24; Weiss 615

(Source: [Weiss Collection](#))

Figure 5: Virginia Indian Treaty Badge

Unknown artist, USA, 1662, Copper alloy, irregular oval, 41 mm x 57 mm

Uniface: indigenous plant. Inscribed **Appamattoc** (in script)

Appamattoc was the name of the Virginian Indian group once part of the Powhatan Paramount Chiefdom. In 1662 the Virginia General Assembly passed an act requiring Indians visiting English settlements to display a copper or silver badge with the name of the Indian town to which they belonged. Twenty badges were made; four exist today. (Image courtesy of The Jamestown-Yorktown Foundation)

Figure 6: George III Indian Peace Medal, ca 1776

Unknown medallist: England, ca 1776, Silver, 60 mm

Obv: Bust of George III. **GEORGIUS III DEI GRATIA** (George III, by the Grace of God)

Rev: Royal arms, crest and motto

Several sizes and die varieties of this medal were struck. They were given to Native Americans as diplomatic offerings.

(Image courtesy of Stacks-Bowers)

Figure 7: Spanish Peace Medal

Thomas Prieto, Spain, 1778, Silver, 56mm

Obv: Charles III (r) **CARLOS III REY DE ESP. EMP. DE LAS INDIAS** (Charles III King of Spain. Emperor of the Indies)

Rev: **AL MERITO** (For Merit)

After France ceded Louisiana to Spain in 1762, the Spanish government began using medals to consolidate their interests among Indians throughout the territory. In 1778 Charles III joined the French in their support of the American Revolution. Following the Revolutionary War he regained control of Florida from Britain.

(Image courtesy of Stacks-Bowers)

Figure 8: George Washington Indian Peace Medal

By Joseph Richardson, Jr.: USA, 1793, Silver, 134 x 175 mm

Obv: Indian receiving pipe from George Washington, farming scene in background.

Exergue: **GEORGE WASHINGTON PRESIDENT 1793** Hallmark of Joseph Richardson, Jr., below.

Rev: Heraldic eagle, clutching olive branch and arrows.

(From Prucha figs. 27, 28)

Figure 9: George III Indian Peace Medal, 1814

Unknown medallist: England, 1814, Silver, 60 mm

Obv: Bust of George III, wearing collar of Great George. **GEORGIVS III DEI GRATIA BRITANNIARVM REX F. D.** (George III, by the Grace of God, King of Great Britain, Defender of the Faith)

Rev: Unicorn and Lion on either side of royal arms, crest and motto. Inscribed on heraldic shield: **HONI SOIT QUI MAL Y PENSE** (Shamed Be He Who Thinks Evil of This). In banner: **DIEU ET MON DROIT** (God and My Right).

(Image courtesy of Stacks-Bowers)

Figure 10: Indian Chief Medal

by T. Wyon, Jr.: England, 1814, Bronze, 73 mm

Obv: Britannia seated on a dias, presenting a medal to a North American Indian

Ref: Brown 843

This piece exists only as a cliché of the reverse die which broke during hardening. It was intended as a reward to those Indian Chiefs who had been loyal to the British during the war with America, 1812-1814.

(Image courtesy of Laurence Brown, British Historical Medals # 843; see also R. Sainthill, *Olla Podrida*, vol. I, p. 28).

Figure 11: Thomas Jefferson Indian Peace Medal

by Robert Scot: USA, ca1870, Bronzed Copper, 75 mm

Obv: Half-length bust of Jefferson (l). **TH. JEFFERSON PRESIDENT OF THE U.S. A.D. 1801.**

Ref: Clasped hands, one with a metal wrist band commonly worn by Indian chiefs, and the other with a braided cuff worn by military officers. Above, a tomahawk and calumet (peace pipe) crossed. **PEACE AND FRIENDSHIP**

Ref: Julian IP-3; Weiss 797

(Source: [Weiss Collection](#))

Figure 12: Henry Clay

by Charles Cushing Wright: USA , 1852, Bronze, 77 mm

Obv: Bust of Clay **HENRY CLAY. BORN APRIL 12, 1777. DIED JUNE 29, 1852**

Rev: Hand on Constitution **THE ELOQUENT DEFENDER OF NATIONAL RIGHTS AND NATIONAL INDEPENDENCE.**

Signed: **C.C. WRIGHT F.**

Ref: Julian 204/PE-8; Elder 26; Weiss 282

(Source: [Weiss Collection](#))

Figure 13: A Scene on the Frontiers as Practiced by the Humane British and Their Worthy Allies!

Propaganda cartoon issued by United States during the War of 1812, suggesting the British were allied with the Indians in perpetrating atrocities against Americans.

Watercolor etching by William Charles, 1812

(Image courtesy of Library of Congress)

Figure 14: Battle of Waterloo

by Benedetto Pistrucci: England, 1815, Bronze Electrotype, 134 mm

Obv: Conjoined busts (l) of King George IV of England, Emperor Francis I of Austria, Emperor Alexander I of Russia, and King Friederich Wilhelm III of Prussia. *Around:* Allegorical and mythological allusions to the treaty of peace which resulted from the Battle of Waterloo.

Rev: The two horsemen in the center of the reverse represent Blucher and Wellington. They are accompanied by Nike, the winged goddess of victory. Over them is the chariot of Zeus (the Thunderer), and below are twelve serpent-legged figures of titans personifying Europe's twelve-year struggle against Napoleon.

Signed: **PISTRUCCI** on both obverse and reverse

Ref: BHM, 208/870; Hocking 207-210; Eimer, 133/1067; Forrer IV, p. 594-598; Bramsen, 2317; D=Essling 1588; Weiss 361

(Source: [Weiss Collection](#))

Figure 15: Map of Northern Theater of War of 1812: Great Lakes and Canadian Territories

(Source: [Anglo American War 1812 Locations map-en.svg](#))

Figure 16: Tecumseh

Tecumseh (properly Tecumthe) (March 1768? - October 5, 1813) was a Native American warrior and military leader of the Shawnee, whose goal was to form a large tribal confederacy that opposed the United States' encroachment of Indian land during Tecumseh's War and the War of 1812. He was the leader of Britain's Indian allies until his death at Moraviantown in 1813. This engraving by Benson John Lossing is based on a sketch made about 1808 by Pierre Le Dru. The artist attired Tecumseh in a uniform coat in the mistaken belief that he held the rank of brigadier general in the British army.

Note the medal around Tecumseh's neck. Although it is impossible to positively identify this medal, it is likely supposed to represent that of George III depicted on the obverse of the British Indian Peace Medal struck about 1776 (see figure 6).

(Source: Benson John Lossing, *The Pictorial Field-Book of the War of 1812*, 1868.)

Figure 17: Battle of Tippecanoe

Nineteenth-century depiction of the final charge that dispersed the Natives, by Alonzo Chappel

(Source: <http://www.acw70indiana.com/stroudisham.htm>)

Figure 18: William Henry Harrison

Oil on canvas by Rembrandt Peale, c.1813

Harrison was originally painted in civilian clothes; the uniform was added later to stress his military roles in the Battle of Tippecanoe and commander of the American forces at the Battle of the Thames, where Tecumseh was killed. In 1840, under the slogan ATippecanoe and Tyler too!@ Harrison was elected ninth President of the United States.

(Source: [National Portrait Gallery, Smithsonian Institution](#))

Figure 19: Captain Isaac Hull

by John Reich: USA, 1812, Gold, 65 mm

Obv: Bust of Hull (l) **ISAACUS HULL** **PERITOS ARTE SUPERAT JUL. MDCCCXII AUG.**
CERTAMINE FORTES (Isaac Hull conquers in July, 1812, the skilled by stratagem, and in August, the powerful in battle.)

Rev: *Guerriere* with her mainmast collapsing and *Constitution* across her bows, surrounded by **HORAE MOMENTO VICTORIA** (Victory in the Space of an Hour)

Exergue: INTER CONST. NAV. AMER. ET GUER. ANGL. (Between the American Vessel *Constitution* and the English Vessel *Guerriere*).

Signed: R

Ref: Julian NA-12; Loubat 153/25

This gold Congressional Medal, presented to Captain Isaac Hull, was likely struck in 1816. (Julian).
(Image courtesy USS Constitution Museum, Boston.)

Figure 20: Naval Battle between USS United States and HMS Macedonian

by Thomas Birch, 1813

This naval battle between the United States and British warships took place on Oct. 30, 1812.

(Source: <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:BirchBattleBetweenTheUnitedStatesAndTheMacedonian.jpg>)

Figure 21: Captain William Bainbridge (Capture of the Java)

by Muritz Furst: USA, 1812, Bronze, 65 mm

Obv: Bust of Bainbridge GULIELMUS BAINBRIDGE PATRIA VICTISQUE LAUDATUS (William Bainbridge, Praised by His Country and by the Vanquished Foe)

Rev: Naval battle PUGNANDO (In Fighting)

Exergue: INTER CONST. NAV. AMERI. ET JAV. NAV. ANGL. DIE XXIX DECEM. MDCCCXII (Between the American Warship *Constitution* and the English Warship *Java*, December 29, 1812)

Signed: FURST. F.

Mintage = 150. Struck from original dies

Ref: Julian 152/ NA-4; Failor 215/ 507; Loubat 166/28; Jaeger and Bowers 54/43; Neuzil 24; Weiss 127

(Source: [Weiss Collection](#))

Figure 22: Captain James Lawrence (Capture of the Peacock)

by Moritz Furst: USA, 1813, Bronze, 64 mm

Obv: Bust of Lawrence JAC. LAWRENCE DULCE ET DECORUM EST PRO PATRIA MORI (James Lawrence. It Is Sweet and Becoming to Die for One=s Country)

Rev: Scene of naval engagement MANSUETUD MAJ QUAM VICTORIA (Clemency Greater than Victory)

Exergue: INTER HORNET NAV. AMERI. ET PEACOCK NAV. ANG. DIE XXIV. FEB. MDCCCXIII (Between the American Vessel *Hornet* and English Warship *Peacock* February 24, 1813)

Signed: FURST F

Mintage = 45. Struck in 1821 from original dies

Ref: Julian 162/NA-14; Loubat 185/33; see Jaeger and Bowers 54/43; Neuzil 33; Weiss 130

(Source: [Weiss Collection](#))

Figure 23: Captain James Biddle (Capture of the Penguin)

By Moritz Furst: USA, 1815, Bronze, 65 mm

Obv: Bust of James Biddle THE CONGRESS OF THE U.S. TO CAPT. JAMES BIDDLE. FOR HIS GALLANTRY GOOD CONDUCT AND SERVICES.

Rev: Naval battle showing the Hornet raking the Penguin. The British vessel has lost her main-top-gallant-mast. In the distance is the peak of Tristan d'Acunha CAPTURE OF THE BRITISH SHIP PENGUIN BY THE U.S. SHIP HORNET.

Exergue: OFF TRISTAN D'ACUNHA MARCH XXIII MDCCCXV

Signed: FURST. F.

Mintage = 98. Struck from original dies.

Ref: Julian 153/ NA-5; Failor 226/518; Loubat 249/48; see Jaeger and Bowers 54/43; Neuzil 25; Weiss 128

(Source: [Weiss Collection](#))

Figure 24: Oliver Hazard Perry

Captain Oliver Hazard Perry, USN (1785-1819) Portrait in oils by Edward L. Mooney (1813-1887) after John Wesley Jarvis (1839). Painting in the U.S. Naval Academy Museum Collection.

(Source: <http://www.history.navy.mil/photos/hi-res/KN%2000001/KN-2783.jpg>)

Figure 25: Colonel George Croghan (Defense of Fort Stephenson)

by Moritz Furst: USA, 1835, Bronze, 65 mm

Obv: Bust of Colonel Croghan (r) **PRESENTED BY CONGRESS TO COLONEL GEORGE CROGHAN 1835**

Rev: English troops attacking American Fort Stephenson. Three gunboats on Lake Erie in background. **PARS MAGNA FUIT (His Share Was Great)**

Exergue: **SANDUSKY 2:AUGUST. 1813**

Signed: **FURST. F.**

Mintage = 100

Ref: Julian 124/MI-12; Failor 197/420; Loubat 272/55; Jaeger and Bowers 54/43; Neuzil 14; Weiss 132

(Source: [Weiss Collection](#))

Figure 26: Death of Tecumseh

Although the person who actually killed Tecumseh is still in dispute, some believe that he was shot to death by Colonel Richard M. Johnson* on October 5, 1813, during the Battle of the Thames. There are several artistic renditions of Tecumseh's death, but this is one of the few showing the Shawnee wearing a medal, presumably meant to represent an Indian Peace medal given to him by the British.

*Johnson later served as Vice President of the United States serving in the administration of Martin Van Buren.

(Image from <http://www.americanindianshistory.blogspot.com/>)

Figure 27: Capture and Burning of Washington by the British, in 1814.

Drawing published in 1876.

(Source: Library of Congress)

Figure 28: Lieutenant Stephen Cassin (Victory of Lake Champlain)

by Moritz Furst: USA, 1814, Gold, 65 mm

Obv: Bust of Cassin (r). **STEP. CASSIN TICONDEROGA PRÆFECT. QUÆ REGIO IN TERRIS NOS. NON PLENA LAB.** (Stephen Cassin, Commander of the *Ticonderoga*. What Region of the Earth Is Not Full of Our Works: *From Virgil, Aeneid, Book I, 464*)

Rev: Naval action on Lake Champlain. To right is city of Plattsburgh in flames. **UNO LATERE PERCUSSO.**

ALTERUM IMPAVIDE VERTIT. (Beaten on One Side, He Fearlessly Turns the Other).

Exergue: **INTER CLASS. AMERI. ET BRIT. DIE XI SEPT. MDCCCXIII** (Between the American and British Fleets, September 11, 1814)

Signed: **FURST. F.**

Ref: Julian NA-8; Loubat 195/36

(Image courtesy of Winterthur Museum)

Figure 29: Red Jacket

Red Jacket, Sagoyewatha, or Keeper Awake, by Charles Bird King, ca.1828.

Oil on wood panel.

The Seneca Chief Red Jacket is shown wearing one of the large, oval, silver Washington Peace Medals given to Indian Chiefs.

Figure 30: Major General Edmund Gaines (Victory of Erie)

by Moritz Furst: USA, 1814, Bronze, 65 mm

Obv: Bust of General Gaines (r) **MAJOR GENERAL EDMUND P. GAINES.**

Rev: Trophy of enemy=s arms and cannon, labeled **ERIE**, crowned by Victory who stands upon a fallen British shield

RESOLUTION OF CONGRESS NOVEMBER 3. 1814.

Exergue: **BATTLE OF ERIE AUG. 15, 1814.**

Signed: **FURST F.**

Mintage: 125 struck from the original dies which were cut by Furst in 1821. Inscriptions were punched into the dies in 1822.

Ref: Julian 125/ MI-13; Neuzil 15; Loubat 226/44; Jaeger and Bowers 54/43; Weiss 648

(Source: [Weiss Collection](#))

Figure 31: Signing of the Treaty of Ghent, 1814

by Amédée Forestier, in Smithsonian American Art Museum (From Wikipedia)

Admiral of the Fleet James Gambier is shaking hands with United States Ambassador to Russia John Quincy Adams; British Under-Secretary of State for War and the Colonies Henry Goulburn is carrying a red folder.

The treaty was signed on December 24, 1814, in Ghent (modern-day Belgium), ending the War of 1812 between the United States and Great Britain. However, it was not put into effect until it was ratified by both sides in February, 1815, a month after the Battle of New Orleans had taken place.

Figure 32: Treaty of Ghent

by J.G. Hancock: England, 1814, Bronze, 46 mm

Obverse: Peace standing on a terrestrial globe holding and olive branch and cornucopia. **ON EARTH PEACE
GOOD WILL TO MEN**

Reverse: Inscription within open wreath. **TREATY OF PEACE & AMITY BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND
THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA SIGNED AT GHENT DEC. 24. 1814**

Ref: Brown 841

(Image courtesy of The British Museum)



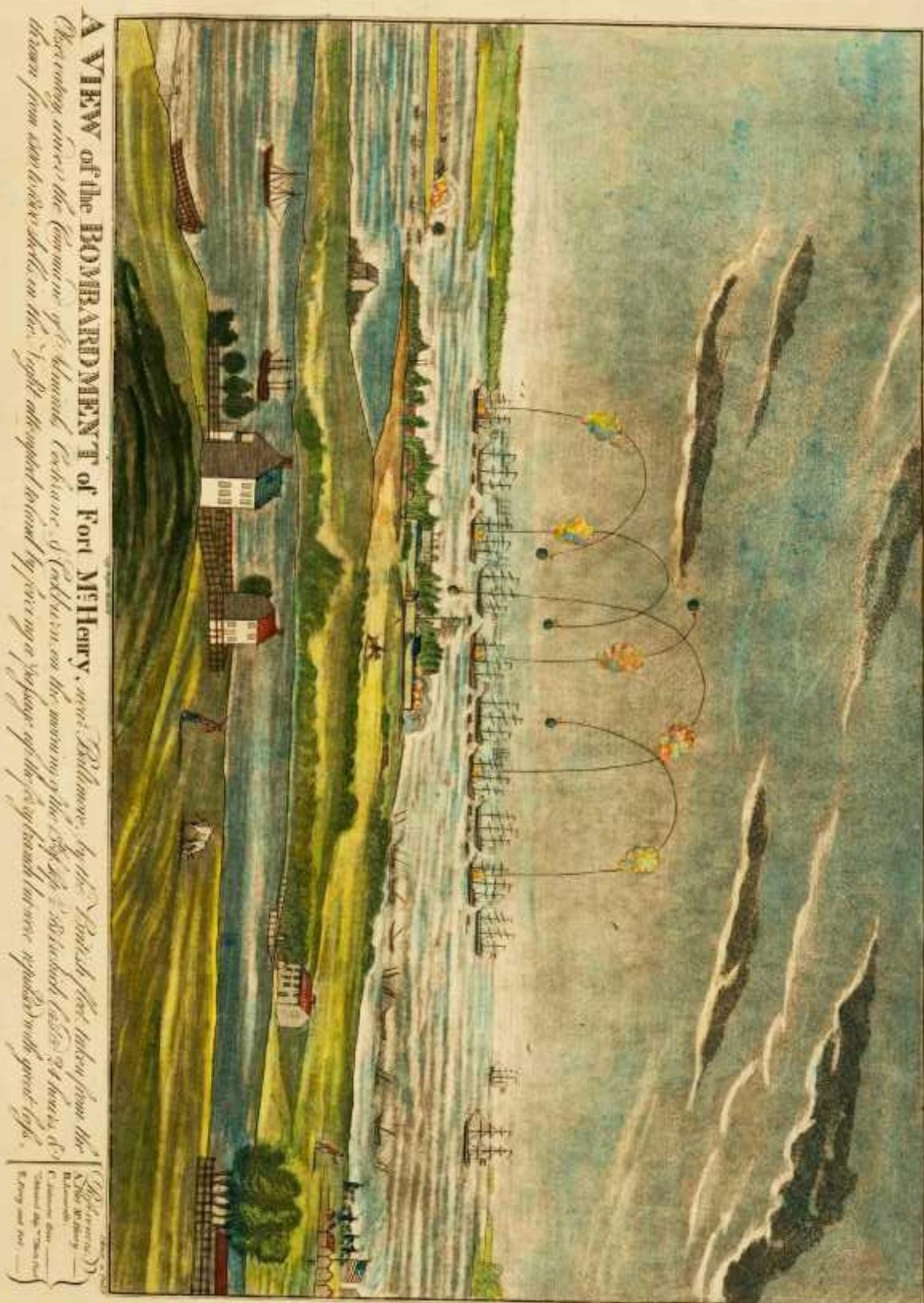
Captain Isaac Hull commanded the USS Constitution in a defeat against the British HMS Guerriere on August 19, 1812. This important American victory early in the War of 1812 dubbed the ship with the nickname "Old Ironsides"

Footnotes:

1. According to Historyguy.com, the U.S. suffered 2260 deaths and 4505 wounded, while the British had 1160 deaths and 3679 wounded, with many more on both sides dying from diseases than from actual battle wounds.
2. Julian records some 11 medals given to 11 different army commanders (see Julian, MI-11 to MI-21, pp. 123-133) and 20 naval medals given to 16 different naval commanders (see Julian, NA-4 to NA-23, pp. 152-169), which were awarded by Congress and issued by the United States Mint for the War of 1812; see also Neuzil and Loubat.
3. A number of fine books and treatises have been written devoted specifically to Indian peace medals, and the reader is urged to consult these for more information on the history of this important medallic subject (see Adams, 1999; Belden, 1966; Cutright, 1968; Prucha, 1971; Laws, 2005; Lopez, 2007; Fuld and Spiegel, 2011; Pickering, 2012).
4. The original English spelling and pronunciation was as the three syllable Shaw-a-nese (Repsher, personal communication).
5. For more on this battle and the medal issued to Colonel Croghan see:
<http://www.numismaticnews.net/article/croghan medal last for war of 1812>
6. Fortunately, before the British arrived, President Madison's wife Dolly saved some of the artwork from the White House, including Gilbert Stuart's famous "Lansdowne" portrait of George Washington, now housed in the National Portrait Gallery in Washington, D.C.
7. For more on the Battles for Upper Canada with maps, see:
http://www.napoleon series.org/military/Warof1812/2006/Issue1/c_ccuc.html



British forces were repulsed at Fort Erie by the Americans under Brigadier General Edmund Gaines



A VIEW of the BOMBARDMENT of Fort McHenry, near Baltimore, by the British fleet taken from the [Liberator]
 (See notes under the name of Baltimore) on the morning of the 14th of September 1814.
 When from land to land shells in the night and spent to land by giving a passage up the bay branch (where yester'day went off).
 R. B. and son

This 1814 print "*A View of the Bombardment of Fort McHenry*" by American John Bower depicts the September 14, 1814 British attack on Fort McHenry, the main defense of Baltimore during the War of 1812. The large iconic flag prominently displayed over the fort was still flying the day after the battle signifying American victory, and inspired Francis Scott Key to write *The Star Spangled Banner*.